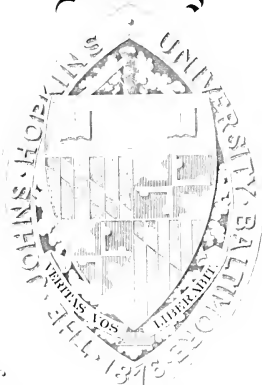
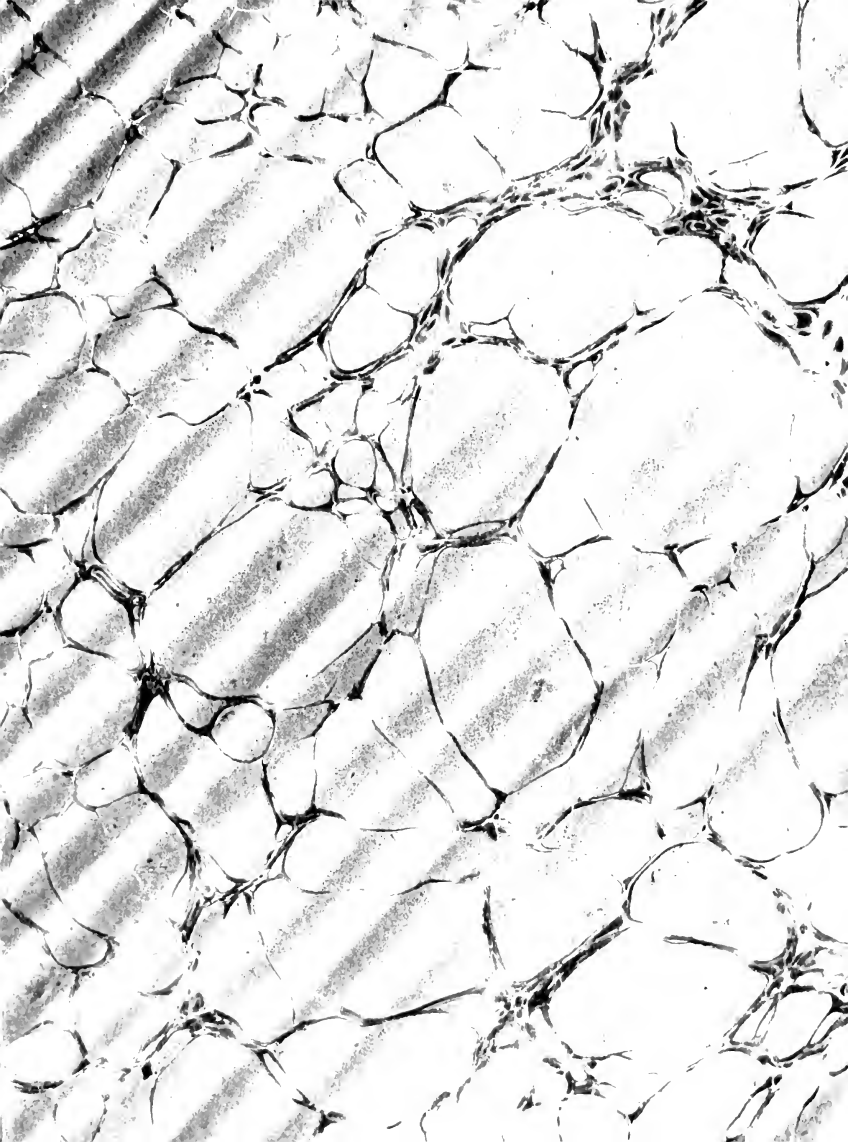


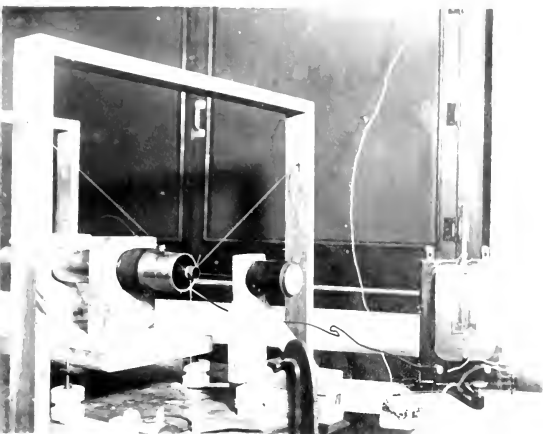
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THE INFLUENCE OF TEMPERATURE ON THE
FORMATION OF CORONA

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Dissertation

Submitted to the Board of University
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the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

Theodore T. Fitch

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166, 666

THE CRITICAL POINT OF LIQUIDS

OF A LIQUID

BY T. L. PITCH.

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1. Introduction.

This paper describes the results of a series of experiments on the effects of pressure, temperature, density of gas and size of conductor on the formation of corona. The study of the effect of pressure and temperature on corona forming voltage was begun by Van in 1904. The study was taken up in 1909 by Wilson. In 1910 Dr. Whitehead began an investigation of the corona and the work given here is largely an extension of that in the second of his series of papers on "The Electric Strength of Air". Peck has also devoted some study to these phases of the corona problem. All the observers mentioned used alternating current except Wilson who worked with direct current.

The purpose of the present work has been to extend some of the earlier investigations, both as to range of pressure and size of conductor and also to obtain further information on the influence of temperature. Some observations were also made with carbon dioxide as the gas surrounding the conductor instead of air to see what part, if any, is played by the humidity of the gas.

The latter part of the work has to do with the formation

of critical, or core-forming, intensity with pressure. For this work conductors varying from .001 to .005 in diameter were used, and the pressure was varied from 0 to 110 cm of mercury.

2. Review of Previous Work on Pressure and Temperature.

This review is confined largely to the investigations on variation of critical intensity with pressure and temperature. Some other points, however, have such an intimate relation to these variations or at least to criticality or ther that they will be mentioned.

It was shown by Ryan¹ that for the case of conductor which he used the critical intensity is a linear function of the pressure from 40 to 90 cm of mercury. A similar relation was shown to hold for variations with temperature between 21 and 93°C.

Watson published a set of experiments² in 1909 showing a linear relation between pressure and critical intensity for the case of direct currents. His range of pressures was from 300 to 700 cm of mercury and in this

¹ Ryan, Conductivity of the Atmosphere at High Altitudes, U. S. N. B. 27, 1904.

² Electricity, Vol. 62, 1909.

of conductors from .07 to .15 cm. The two curves are shown showing the amount of current C in amperes.

In Dr. Whitehead's papers (1907, 1908, 1909) were given showing a linear relation between critical intensity and pressure from 20 to 100 cm. The conductors used ranged in diameter from .122 to .475 cm. Some experiments were also made showing a linear relation between critical intensity and temperature. Only one size of conductor was used. The range of temperature was from 6 to 41°C.

It was further shown that:

The critical intensity is independent of free ionization, moisture content and velocity of the air.

The visual critical intensity is identical with that determined by an electroscope.

The critical intensity for clean round conductors for a pressure of 10 cm and temperature of 20°C is determined by a formula of the form:

$$E = A + \frac{B}{\sqrt{D}} \quad (3)$$

where A and B are constants and D is the diameter of the conductor. This formula is identical with that of Peek.

Peek² has given the results of a series of experiments

² See. The Law of Corona. A. E. H. B. 1902.

variations of critical intensity with temperature follow practically a linear law between -20 and $+140^{\circ}\text{C}$. The following general formula covering the variations of critical intensity with change of temperature and pressure for a tube and concentric conductor is follows:

$$g = 31 \delta \left(1 + \frac{0.508}{\sqrt{\delta r}} \right) \quad (2)$$

where g is the critical intensity in kilo volts per cm, r is the radius of conductor and

$$\delta = \frac{2.92 p}{273 + t},$$

p being the pressure in cm of mercury and t the temperature centigrade. So far as can be found the only statements he has given concerning the influence of pressure on the variation of critical intensity is a curve⁴ giving observations on a 2.54 cm conductor for pressures from 2 to 35 cm and a table of values of δ and corresponding values of g in closing the discussion of his 1917 paper⁵. No description of his methods was given.

The observations of which the results are given in this paper were made in the spring of 1917 before some of Peck's work was published. It appears, however, that there is still a lack of sufficiently extensive data on variation

⁴

Peck: Nature of Science, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 1, 1917.

Peck: Proc. A. S. N. E. Soc. 1917.

of artificial coronas, in which the corona is produced by a high voltage source.

F. Apparatus and Equipment.

For the pressure measurements a glass or plastic tube about 30 cm in length was used. The ends were fitted with insulation caps about 10 cm long. These caps were for the double purpose of insulation and sealing for the variation of air pressure both above and below atmospheric. A rotary air pump enabled the tube to be evacuated to about 5 cm of mercury in 5 minutes. Most changes of pressure could be made in a minute or two, but owing to numerous joints necessary for insulation purposes there was present some leakage, which necessitated a longer time to exhaust to the lowest pressure reached; and set the limit of about 5 cm as the minimum.

A small glass window was placed in the tube for making visual observations of the coronas, but during most of the work the gold leaf electroscope was used to detect the point at which coronas began. This method is described in detail in the first of the above mentioned papers. Further description is unnecessary here. The electroscope was a Farrington type of electrostatic. The discharge of coronas is very strongly localized. It is possible to observe

or less in the voltage will cause the time of contact to change to change from about a half hour to five seconds. The difference between the beginning of corona as observed by the eye and by the discharge of the electroscope is within this small error of observation.

The observations on the influence of temperature were made with a similar apparatus, except that the tube was in this case surrounded by a water jacket. Hand stirring of the water was found to be sufficient to keep the temperature of the air within the tube uniform to about two degrees. Only the smaller sizes of conductor could be used in this apparatus owing to spark over troubles occasioned by the reduced size of outer tube. The heating was done by gas burners and ice was used for getting reduced temperature.

Source of Power.

The power for all the experiments was drawn from a 10 KVA, 100000 volt transformer. The transformer was operated by a motor generator set of 7.5 KW capacity, the generator field being excited by a storage battery, resulting in good voltage control. All experiments were made at a frequency of 60 cycles. The transformer is provided with a tap coil giving 120 volts for 100000 volts on the high tension

terminals as computed from the ratio of primary to secondary turns. This test coil was used entirely in making measurements of the voltage. All determinations of ratio of minimum to mean effective voltage were also obtained from this coil.

4. Ratio of Minimum to Mean Effective Voltage.

For the purpose of checking the results this ratio was determined by two methods. The first makes use of the oscillograph, the second of a rotating contactor and the principle of the potentiometer.

The ratio was determined from the oscillograms by measuring a number of ordinates, usually about 30 or 40 to a cycle. From these ordinates taken at equal distances the ratio of minimum to the square root of the mean square value was computed. The principal difficulty with this method is to obtain an oscillogram with lines sufficiently sharp and narrow.

The contactor method is indicated in Figure 1, the contact wheel being placed on the generator shaft. In this method a potentiometer was provided for measuring the voltage at the point of contact. The generator is then run at the contact rate shifted until the electrode is on a crest of the wave. Then the electrode is moved until the galvanometer is at the zero deflection.

The readings of the two instruments are then taken. The ratio of the two readings in volt is the ratio desired, the direct current voltmeter indicating the maximum voltage and the alternating current voltmeter the mean effective value.

The chief difficulty with this method is to keep the source of alternating voltage sufficiently steady during the time necessary for an observation. A damped galvanometer is required of fairly high sensibility. And, for calibration of the voltmeters is necessary since the ratio is all that is required. The alternating current voltmeter is of the electrodynamic type and it was compared with the direct current voltmeter by taking the ratio of each from a known standard voltage.

Table 1, on page 10, gives the ratio of maximum to mean effective voltage for the various voltages on the test coil of the transformer used in the experiments. The values taken from the curve were used in making reductions of readings of critical intensity.

Figure 4 is a reproduction from a typical oscillogram.

Table 1.

Test Coil	Ratio = $\frac{V_{22} \cdot I_{12} \cdot a_{21}}{I_{22} \cdot V_{12} \cdot a_{11}}$		
	Volts	Dontrimeter	Oscilloscope From Above
4		1.4395	1.440
7		1.440	1.440
10		1.440	1.440
15	1.451		1.440
20	1.459		1.445
25	1.456		1.445
30	1.439		1.445
35	1.438		1.445
50	1.444	1.446	1.440
60	1.421	1.450	1.440
75	1.452	1.437	1.440

5. Variation of Critical Intensity with Pressure.

Fig. 1 shows the observed variation of critical intensity with pressure, while Fig. 2 shows the corresponding variation of critical intensity computed from the same observations. As mentioned before 4 conductors having diameters .13 to .1950 cm in diameter were used. Above 50 or 60 cm pressure the curves are nearly straight; the curvature is, if so slight as to be within the error of observation. This explains, therefore, the conclusion of the earlier paper that the relation between pressure and critical intensity is linear in this region.

The critical intensity is the electric field at the surface of the inner conductor. Its value is given by the formula:

$$X = \frac{dV}{dr} = \frac{E}{r \log \frac{R}{r}}$$

where X is the critical intensity, V the potential, r and R the radii of inner and outer conductors respectively. This may be shown as follows:

$$X = \frac{2\pi e}{r}$$

for an infinitely long charged conductor where e is the charge per unit length. The capacity of concentric cylinders per unit length is given by the formula:

$$C = \frac{1}{2 \log \frac{R}{r}}$$

and the difference of potential of the cylinders is given by the equation:

$$g = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{R} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{R}{r} \right)$$

$$X = \frac{2.5}{r} = \frac{2.5}{r} \cdot \frac{1}{2 \log \frac{R}{r}} = \frac{1}{r \log \frac{R}{r}}$$

Tables 2 to 10 give a complete set of observations.

Several readings were taken at each pressure as shown in the readings. The pressure was determined by use of a gauge or merometer. This method gives, of course, only the difference of pressure between that in the tube and atmospheric. For this reason it was necessary to read the barometer to obtain the absolute pressure. The voltage was read by two 750 volt alternating current voltmeters of suitable ranges connected to the test coil of the transformer as has been stated before. In taking readings the electroscope was first charged and then the voltage gradually raised till the electroscope was suddenly discharged as shown by the fall of the gold leaf.

6. Empirical Formulae.

As stated before, Leck has given the formula

$$g = 318 \left(1 + \frac{0.308}{\sqrt{S} r} \right)$$

connecting the critical intensity, g in kilo volts per cm with pressure, temperature and radius of conductor. Figure 6 shows curves for three sizes of conductor for the temperature 21°C . As indicated the circles are observed points while the full lines are plotted from the formula given above. It is seen that the formula fits well, but does not need *these* corrections very closely, for it is only a very rough approximation. The full line is a smooth curve, and the circles are

Table 2.

Data on the test.

Wire No.	Reel No.	Diff.	Wire Temp.	Pres- sure mm	Volts on test coil Cor- rected	Cruti- cal max.	Cruti- cal max. at 100°	Initial Intensit. m.v.
06	997	711	700	18.3	4.1			
06	997	11			4.0			
06	997	11			4.0	4.3	3.0	9.0
06	997	11			4.0			
06	997	11			4.0			
10	925	534			3.4			
10	26	86			.5			
10	26	86	700	180	.5	3.4	10.0	1.0
10	27	88			.3			
10	28	88			.4			
4	882	508			10.9			
4	82	7			10.0			
4	82	8	707	270	10.9	11.0	11.1	35.1
4	82	8			10.98			
4	81	7			10.96			
18	526	406			14.1			
18	80	36	707	350	4.1	14.1	14.1	32.8
17	27	10			4.1			
17	27	10			4.1			
05	762	206			17.2			
05	764	9			7.1			
05	81	8	707	470	7.2	17.4	20.9	3.1
05	82	8			7.2			
05	84	9			7.2			
05	769	204			18.7			
05	81	8	707	3.2	.7			
05	82	8			.8	18.0	24.1	27.9
05	81	4			.8			
05	81	114			22.2			
05	82	8			2.1			
05	82	8	708	387	2.0	22.2	22.4	27.1
05	87	5			2.1			
05	81	8			25.1			
05	81	8	708	170	1.0			
05	81	8			1.0	22.2	22.4	27.1

Table 2 (continued)

1000 ohm termination.

Curve	Read- ings	Diff.	Error- meter	Temp.	Pres- sure mm.	Volts on test coil for- ward lead rectified	Initial end run.	Initial cal. W. max. at 1000	Initial int. p- ss.
9	532	97				27.5			
8	54	4	768		863	27.8	27.6	27.2	27.9
8	54	4				27.5			
8	54	5				27.5			
5	136	109				28.2			
5	15	10	768		876	28.2			
5	35	10				28.4	28.4	28.0	28.4
5	36	09				28.2			
5	408	107				28.7			
4	08	6				28.7			
4	09	5	768	16.9	1073	28.6	28.8	29.5	29.2
3	10	3				28.7			
4	09	5				28.8			

Series C
3.31 cm. condenser

Amperage	Readings	Baro- m. diff.	Baro- meter	Temp.	Pres- sure mm	Volts on test coil Cor- rected	Criti- cal A.V. max.	Criti- cal A.V. max. at 20°C	Criti- cal A.V. max. at temp.
38	1000	712	700	18.2	48	4.1			
38	90	712				4.2			
38	80	12				.2	4.5	5.5	6.5
38	60	12				.3			
38	40	12				.5			
10	958	642				7.1			
10	80	4				.1			
10	60	4				.0	7.2	8.5	10.2
15	80	3	700		116	6.9			
16	59	3				7.1			
49	915	566				10.2			
46	15	7	700		193	.2			
48	15	7				.1	10.3	12.3	13.5
48	16	8				.2			
48	15	7				.1			
62	910	549				10.9			
61	10	9				.7			
61	10	9	750	19.8	207	10.9	10.9	15.0	20.0
61	10	9				.7			
61	10	9				.6			
31	846	418				15.6			
31	40	15				.6			
31	40	15	750		341	.6	15.7	18.8	20.8
31	40	15				.6			
400	719	316				15.9			
81	801	20				15.9			
85	707	12	750		441	15.9	15.9	20.2	25.2
84	9	14				19.1			
84	98	14				15.3			
500	710	277				15.5			
500	757	15				15.6			
37	50	16	750		506	15.7	15.7	20.0	25.0
30	54	13				15.1			
28	58	10				15.3			

Table 3 (continued)

.410 c: conductor

Case	end-				Pres-	Volts on				
ings		Diff.	meter	Temp.	sure	test coil	Drill-	Drill-	coil	Initial
					mm	Lead rected	coil	W. rad.	at	Intensity
							rad.	20°		
3	710	117				25.4				
2	10	18				.5				
1	11	20	755		638	.4	25.5	5.7	33.7	41.2
2	10	18				.4				
	-	-				29.2				
	-	-	756		756	3.9	21.4	37.4	75.4	11.1
	-	-				9.1				
	-	-				1.2				
5	597	158				34.0				
5	97	58				3.9	34.1	41.1	41.1	37.7
4	97	57	750		914	4.0				
4	97	57				3.9				
9	874	205				36.8				
30	85	15	750		1051	1.1	37.0	41.0	40.0	1.1
30	88	17				1.2				
30	87	95				1.2				

Table 4 (continued)

.400 ohm conductor

Run	Lead- ings	Diff.	Micro- meter	Temp.	Pres- sure mm.	Volts on test coil		Critical field		Critical Intensity, gauss/cm.
						Ir- radiated	Ir- radiated	40.0	40.0	
-	-	-	-	-	-	33.6				
-	-	-	-	-	-	3.1				
-	-	-	782	-	782	3.1	33.2	40.0	40.0	31.5
-	-	-	-	-	-	3.0				
-	-	-	-	-	-	3.0				
97	787	100	-	-	-	33.2				
97	57	50	-	-	-	3.4				
97	56	59	783	-	910	3.3	39.1	40.9	40.0	33.2
97	57	60	-	-	-	3.0				
96	51	335	-	-	-	44.1				
96	73	7	-	-	-	3.0				
96	73	7	783	-	1069	3.0	44.9	53.0	50.0	31.0
97	73	6	-	-	-	4.9				

Table 6.

Fluorine collectors.

Date	Time	Baro- m. Hg.	Temp.	Pres- sure mm	Test coil		Vertical		D. Ther- m. at 20° C.
					Volts Ser-	Volts rec'd	V.	Max.	
5	11	318	11.5	73	6.9				
2	11	3			7.0				
3	11	8			7.0	7.2	8.5	8.4	17.6
5	11	8			7.1				
21	902	541			14.0				
22	32	40		210	15.1	15.1	18.2	17.6	18.4
22	31	39			5.0				
22	31	39			5.1				
56	920	434			15.9				
56	20	5			.8	15.2	17.1	15.	17.3
56	18	2		204	.8				
57	17	0			15.0				
56	17	1			9.0				
20	325	219			23.7				
27	24	7			6.3	50.6	52.7	51.9	52.6
27	25	8		427	6.3				
25	26	331			6.3				
39	141	152			33.4				
38	43	3			3.3				
38	42	4		331	3.5	73.4	47.2	39.7	40.6
36	42	8			3.2				
32	42	4			3.3				
-	-	-			40.3				
-	-	-		753	0.7	41.3	47.6	43.1	41.1
-	-	-			0.2				
-	-	-			0.2				
5	101	134			47.3				
57	30	3			7.4				
56	28	3		111	7.4	41.7	51.0	47.6	47.7
55	31	4			7.3				
16	114	132			51.0				
17	13	4		991	1.6	51.0	51.1	51.1	51.1
13	11	7			1.1				
13	11	7			.3				
17	11	3			.6				

1018.
4112 pressure meter.

Auto Read- ings	989	Diff.	meter	Temp.	Pressure mm	Coil Volts for- Head	Pressure corrected	V. Hg.	At sea	Partial atmos.
97	989	332	750	14.7	64	8.8				
97	89	2				.7				
97	89	2				.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
97	81	2				.9				
96	81	3				.1				
80	81	5.1				19.1				
79	85	47				.0				
81	76	497	750		250	.2	19.4	15.4	11.1	1.4
80	79	19				.1				
80	79	19				.2				
20	829	409				24.4				
20	29	9				4.4				
19	30	11			347	4.1	24.4	21.4	29.0	24.4
20	29	01				4.4				
20	21	09				4.4				
05	709	304				30.0				
05	09	4				0.0				
05	01	4			452	29.9	30.1	31.5	31.5	31.5
05	09	4				30.0				
04	09	5				0.0				
09	703	199				33.0				
08	01	201				5.5				
08	09	1			355	5.4	18.0	48.9	42.3	31.1
07	10	3				5.5				
08	09	1				5.0				
48	633	105				40.9				
48	53	5				0.9				
48	52	4			652	0.9	40.9	41.3	48.5	41.0
49	51	2				1.0				
48	53	5				0.0				
-	-	-				40.5				
-	-	-				0.5				
-	-	-			750	0.5	40.0	55.3	57.0	40.0
-	-	-				0.4				
-	-	-				0.5				
40	601	120				55.4				
40	20	20				1.5				
40	20	20			670	1.5	11.0	37.1	32.1	11.1
40	11	21				1.1				
82	459	204				51.0				
82	50	3				.5				
81	51	2			1.0	.2	51.5	10.5	11.5	11.1
87	57	6				.				
80	51	0				.				

- 250 or 300 meter

Large Readings	Small Readings	Barometer	Temp.	Pressure	Port Coll. Volts	Corr. Port. Coll.	At 20°C	Int. Corr.
1	883	382			7.8			
0	88	88			.7			
1	81	80	750	10.8	.7	7.9	7.2	6.4
1	81	80			.8			
0	82	82			.7			
5	937	502			14.2			
5	37	2	750	148	.1	14.3	17.1	11.9
5	37	2			.1			
0	882	502			22.1			
0	882	2			1.7			
0	82	2		249	1.7			
0	82	2	750		1.5	21.9	26.4	18.5
0	80	0			2.0			
9	80	1			1.8			
4	325	401			23.5			
4	24	0			8.2			
4	24	0	750	350	8.2	28.5	34.5	25.8
4	25	99			8.5			
4	25	99			8.5			
8	765	297			35.0			
7	65	9	750	463	5.0	35.0	42.2	31.7
8	65	7			5.0			
6	65	7			5.0			
8	738	150			34.9			
7	38	1			7.9			
7	38	1	750	410	8.1	34.0	40.6	31.4
8	38	46			8.1			
8	38	46			8.1			
-	-	-			8.1			
-	-	-			8.1			
-	-	-	750	41.8	7.9	34.2	40.7	31.4
-	-	-			8.2			
-	-	-			8.1			

is brought into close agreement.

Figure 9 is plotted from the formula:

$$\epsilon = 33.6 \delta \left(1 + \frac{0.41}{\sqrt{\delta r}} \right) \quad (2')$$

The circles show the observed points as before. It is seen that with the formula so changed it represents the observations about as closely as the readings can be taken. This formula gives zero voltage for zero pressure provided r has a value greater than zero which, of course, it has for any real case. As the present observations run only as low as 4 or 5 cm pressure, they furnish no test on this point. Investigations are now under way to determine what becomes of the corona at very low pressures.

If in equation 2 the value of δ at 76 cm pressure and temperature 20° be substituted the following formula is obtained:

$$\epsilon = 33 + \frac{11.4}{\sqrt{D}} \quad (3)$$

This formula gives the variation of critical intensity with size of conductor at standard temperature and pressure. The curve in Fig. 4 is a plot from this equation while the circles are observed points. In Dr. Whitham's work a formula of the same form but with different constants was given, namely:

$$\epsilon = 70 + \frac{10.4}{\sqrt{D}} \quad (4)$$

The first constant of formula (1) is 10^{-10} in the first formula (3) and the second in the latter, is the difference in length, one of curvature. That difference there is over the range of conductors observed is appreciable. The small discrepancy in the ratio of transformation of the transformers used in the earlier experiments and the present ones. It was found by trial in Dr. Whitehead's experiments that the indicated critical intensity, with the 70000-volt transformer with which these experiments were conducted was 14.7 V. for a .047 cm conductor and 12.4 for the 100000-volt transformer which was used in the present set of experiments. These two differing values were obtained at the same time and with voltage from the same generator. Allowing for this discrepancy the present observations are brought into closer agreement with the other values. As the purpose of this work is the investigation of the influence of length of wire on critical voltage intensity, and as the above discrepancy cannot affect the results relatively, its elimination is unnecessary to later observations.

V. Variation of Critical Intensity with

Temperature.

The average of 100 observations of critical voltage for a .047 cm wire at 15°C. is 12.4 volts. The critical voltage for a .047 cm wire at 15°C. is 12.4 volts. The critical voltage for a .047 cm wire at 15°C. is 12.4 volts.

plotted. The curves are plotted on a semi-logarithmic scale:

$$R = 0.1 \delta \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}} \right)$$

Table II.

Diam. of Condenser	Temp. °C	Barometer	Test Cell Voltage		Critical Intensity	
			Read	Corrected	Obs.	Calc.
.253	4.0	758	22.6	22.6	60.0	51.7
	24.3	760	21.5	21.5	51.5	46.6
	55.4	754	19.8	20.0	43.5	42.7
.315	3.7	758	26.4	26.4	57.0	56.3
	24.2	760	25.0	25.0	54.3	51.4
	50.8	754	23.1	23.3	50.7	50.0
.399	6.5	758	29.1	29.1	53.7	54.3
	24.2	760	28.1	28.1	51.3	51.5
	51.0	754	27.9	28.1	47.1	47.1

The diameter of tube used as outside cell during all these experiments was 10.1 cm. The curves in Figs. 9 are plotted on a straight line as the range of the intensity is not wide enough to bring out any curvature. The correspondence of the points of test at water is also very close.

. Influence of Density of the Medium on Critical Intensity.

A simple calculation from the gas equation

$$pv = RT$$

shows that the pressure coefficient and temperature coefficient interpreted in terms of the change in volume of unit mass of gas are the same. In other words the critical corona intensity in air varies nearly as the density whether such change is produced by a change of pressure or temperature. This idea is implicitly stated in Peek's equation in his density factor δ . It must be remembered, however, that his definition gives only the relative density. With a view to the more definite measurement of density as the mass per unit volume we have made some interesting preliminary observations on the corona in gases heavier than air.

In Fig. 11 are shown two curves of the variation of critical intensity with pressure, one in air and the other in a mixture of carbon dioxide and air, but containing about 90% by volume of the former. Owing to the size of the tube it was not possible to fill it with pure CO_2 .

It is seen that there is little change due to the presence of the CO_2 although its density is about 1.5 times

that ϕ^* in air is low and increases with the variation of critical intensity, as shown in Fig. 10, 11, 12, on the basis of the experimental results of the ionization of the molecules of the gases, which are in good agreement with the number of molecules in air given by the variation of the pressure with temperature. The ionization of the gases depends on the critical intensity. The ionization of the gases shows that in fact the relative critical intensity, ϕ^*/ϕ_0 , which is found in the separate section of the molecules. This is in fact a principle tenet of the theory of secondary ionization or ionization by collision and explains all forms of spark discharge in gases. A further study along this line may throw considerable light on some phases of the corona problem which are still obscure.

9. Comparison with results of Streaming Potential.

Figure 14 is reproduced from a paper by Wilson on "The Dielectric Strength of Air". The curves show the variation of the streaming potential of wet spheres with variation of pressure. The pressures range from atmospheric

upward so that they are not directly comparable with pressures in the present set of corona experiments. Upon the work of other observers, however, it is known that the curves tend down toward the zero until they reach the so called "critical pressure". Upon further reduction of pressure the curves turn sharply upward. These critical pressures vary with the length of spark gap, ranging from 3.0 to 0.5 mm for spark gaps of 1 to 10 mm, respectively^C.

It is seen by reference to the curves that their general shape is the same as for critical corona intensity. The chief question of interest in both cases is the departure from the linear law as the curvature is reached. In the case of case. By analogy with curves for sparking potentials it might be anticipated that the critical corona intensity may rise at very low pressures, in fact it is known that it is difficult to get a vacuum in discharges at very high values.

The results obtained with corona in carbon dioxide were to be anticipated from Paschen's law. This law states that the sparking potential depends on the product of the pressure and the spark length. Curves plotted with pressure on the vertical axis and spark length as abscissa of Paschen's law construction of H. G. Throesch, *Phys. Rev.*, 1931.

test. Its ordinates are nearly the same for carbon dioxide but differ considerably for hydrogen. No attempt was made to try hydrogen in the present set of experiments as the medium surrounding the conductor owing to the presence of some leakage of the tube which might have resulted in the oxidation of an explosive mixture. It is interesting to note the simplicity of the coronal spectrum as a test for studying the theory of gaseous conduction.

Discussion.

As most of the observed laws of coronal formation are in accord with the theory of ionization by collision, a brief statement of some of the fundamental experiments and conclusions of that theory will not be out of place.

When two parallel conducting plates are connected to a source of potential difference and the gas between them ionized by X rays or radium, it is found that a current passes. This current increases at first as the potential difference is increased, but later attains a stationary value. No further increase of the current with increasing voltage is noted until a considerably higher voltage is reached when the current again increases rapidly with increasing voltage. The interpretation of this phenomenon is that the gas is ionized first by collisions due to the

current which can be drawn from the ionization limit. The saturation current is a function of both this limit. Thus, however, the voltage becomes sufficiently high the ions attain a velocity which enables them to produce new ones by collision with neutral atoms. This is known as ionization by collision or secondary ionization. This theory of ionization by collision accounts for the order of magnitude of the critical corona voltage which in the limiting case of plane surfaces is approximately 30 K.V. per cm. The mean free path of the electrons is about 4×10^{-6} cm at 76 cm pressure and 20°C as has been shown by Townsend and others. This is about 4 times the mean free path of the molecules of the gas. For the ordinary sizes of conductors the voltage over a mean free path of an electron is about 1 volt. This indicates that the critical intensity is that which gives the ionizing voltage of about 10 volts¹¹ in a distance of 4 times the mean free path, or in other words some of the electrons having a free path of 1 micron thus start the corona.

The ionization theory fails to show why the critical intensity varies with the size of the conductor, the variation of critical intensity with pressure being of

¹¹Phys. Rev. 17, 151, 1922.

follows this law. At the critical intensity $I = I_c$, the corona intensity rises quite rapidly as the wire diameter is reduced. The intensity in the gas falls away as $\frac{1}{r}$ where r is the distance from the center of the conductor, and from this it is seen that the intensity diminishes much more rapidly in the immediate neighborhood of a small conductor than in a large one. Nevertheless the diminution in a distance of 5 or 10 mean free paths of air or other is negligible, still in a practical case.

The corona begins and ends at approximately the same voltage on the end wave. This indicates that the rate of recombination of the ions is very great. It seems possible from this fact that the corona will not start until the intensity is high enough over some depth such as half a cm on account of the great amount of recombination which goes on in the neighboring space, where the intensity is too low.

Conclusions.

1. The critical corona forming electric intensity in air has been determined over the range of pressure from 10 to 100 cm of mercury, for 9 sizes of round conductor of diameters from .5 to .85 cm.

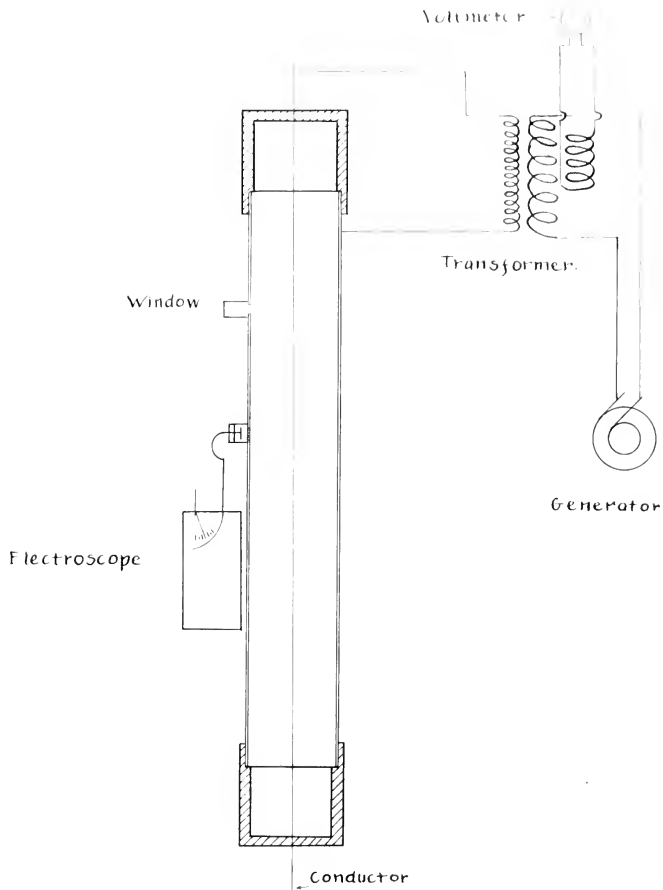
2. A few observations on the effect of humidity on the critical intensity of 5° to 8° are also recorded.

3. The relationship in which critical intensity is an empirical relation between electrode distance, pressure and temperature suggested by Leck.

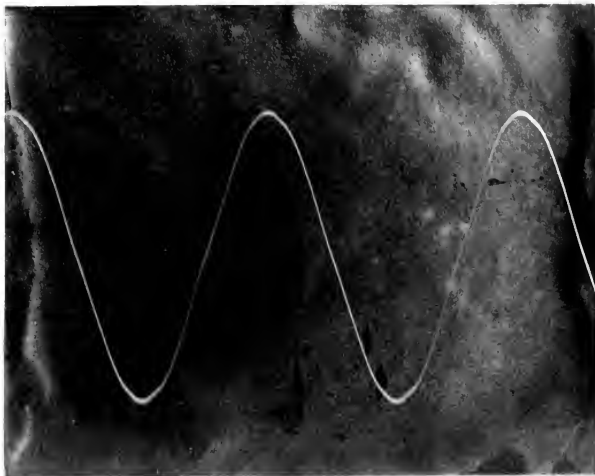
4. Experiments with carbon dioxide indicate that the critical corona intensity is independent of the absolute density of the gas, but depends on the number and size of the molecules, in accord with the theory of secondary ionization.

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Corona Tube Apparatus.
Fig 1.



Oscillogram at 60 volts and 60 cycles.

Fig 4.





Biographical Note.

Theodore Thornbur Fitch, son of Henry H., and Elizabeth Fitch was born in Sac County, Iowa, September 23, 1879. In 1898 he graduated from Sac City Institute, a college preparatory school. He spent the year of 1899-00 at the State University of Iowa, and the following scholastic year entered Iowa State College where he graduated in the course in Civil Engineering in 1903. He spent the year following in the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. The following year, 1904-1905 he took up the study of Electrical Engineering at Iowa State College. Since 1906 he has been continuously on the staff of the Bureau of Standards at Washington, D. C., being now an Assistant Physicist. In 1910 he took up graduate work at Johns Hopkins University choosing physics as principal subject and Mathematics and Astronomy as subordinate subjects. He took lectures under Professors Ames and Whitcomb and Drs. Millersson, Cohen and Pfund. He also took a number of lecture courses given at the Bureau of Standards by Drs. Langmuir, Pfund and Hutchinson.

